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ABSTRACT

Focusing on issues and concerns pertaining to teaching and counseling rural women and minority women living in rural environments, the four papers aim to promote a better understanding and more realistic picture of conditions affecting rural/minority women. "Factors Influencing Educational and Occupational Choices of Rural/Minority Women" briefly explores historical and contemporary factors influencing educational and occupational choices of rural/minority females and presents possible approaches for amelioration of the current situation. In "Educational and Career Goals of Rural Women," common problems faced by rural women are briefly discussed: a conservative orientation toward sex roles and appropriate lifestyles; a conflict between the traditional demands of rural culture and contemporary pressure to enter the labor force; lack of skills to qualify for better jobs; and low aspirations and expectations. "A Teaching Style Profile of Women in Rural Schools of New Mexico" describes a 1980-81 pilot study on the teaching style of 50 rural female teachers in New Mexico. The last paper, "Pictorials in Social Studies Textbooks: Perpetuating Sexism and Racism," reports a study which measured whether increasing social attention to racial and sexual biases contained in textbooks influenced the content of text and books used in four school districts with bilingual/bicultural programs. (NQA)

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A POTPOURRI OF ISSUES RELEVANT TO RURAL AND MINORITY WOMEN IN THE SOUTHWEST

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INTRODUCTION

Two minority groups, women and rural populations, have received increased attention in recent years. In spite of heightened awareness of these minority groups, it appears that a neglected area of research which is matched by a lack of concern in data gathering obscures the picture. Statistics with specific categories for rural and/or minority women are virtually non-existent. In order to provide more adequate educational and counseling services for these target populations, it is imperative to address the problems and conditions characteristic of the rural community.

Rural America has been undergoing a decline in population and opportunity for the last 50 years. However, with the recent movements of population from urban to rural settings, there are strong indications that the decline will reverse in the next decade (Edington, 1978). According to the Bureau of Census (1975) one-third of the population of the United States is rural (66 million), and women comprise a little over one-half of that total (34 million). Minority women, Blacks in the South, Chicanas and Native Americans in the Southwest, Native Alaskans, and Migrant, are found in large numbers among the rural female population.

This collection of papers will focus on issues and concerns pertaining to teaching and counseling rural women, as well as minority women living in rural environments. A variety of perspectives will be explored in relation to these areas. Discussion will be aimed at promoting a better understanding and more realistic picture of conditions that affect rural/minority women. Specific observations on a number of topics that cross discipline and cultural lines will provide a basis for recommendations and suggestions that might lead to constructive change.

FACTORS INFLUENCING EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES OF RURAL/MINORITY WOMEN

Presented by:

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A variety of factors contribute to the self-perpetuating, narrow perspective regarding educational and career opportunities for rural/minority women. This paper will briefly explore the historical as well as contemporary factors which influence rural/minority females, present possible approaches for amelioration of the current situation, and offer some recommendations for the future.

The roles of women in rural environments seem to have been determined during the frontier period of US history, and this is especially true in the Southwest where the attitudes and cultural values of the Spanish conquistadores shaped the lives of rural people. Life on the frontier was difficult and austere with an isolation that was both geographical and cultural. Education took place in a home or at the church, but rarely included females. As Gregg (1954) recalls, "Female education has, if possible been more universally neglected than that of the other sex" in rural America. Rural females seemed to be viewed, reared and treated as primarily wives and mothers. Education was defined largely as a male prerogative, but only for sons of the wealthy.

Still the frontier conditions made the maintenance of traditional roles difficult. Women could not occupy a subordinate and protected status. They were actively involved in activities outside the house such as taking care of the cattle, butchering and skinning animals, as well as planting, irrigating and harvesting crops (Swadesh, 1974). Rural women were able to educate themselves for survival under harsh and demanding conditions and while they worked only at home they developed skills and abilities unique to their situation.

Today the total number of rural females is about 34 million (Clarenbach, 1977) and they are ethnically and culturally diverse, as well as geographically dispersed. There is some correlation between rural life and low income and 44% of all rural poor families are headed by women (Kuhns, 1973). In general, rural Americans have a higher incidence of social problems and receive a lower per capita share of Federal dollars designed to meet those problems. Poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, under-employment, infant mortality, economic exploitation and lack of opportunity are all more prevalent in the rural environment. Unfortunately rural/minority women are at the bottom of the list in terms of priorities for receiving assistance.

Family socialization practices in rural America continue to reinforce traditional roles for females; however, demands for conformity come from many sources and influence the choices made by rural/minority women. Even though a girl may be extremely bright and highly motivated, her educational and occupational goals are not taken seriously since she will eventually have a man to take care of her.

Rural schools continue the socialization process even to the titles of clubs available for students to join. Future Farmers of America and Future Homemakers of America certainly delineate the roles of rural males and females. Schools are unable to provide quality education in all areas and tend either to go strongly vocational or college preparatory, but the focus is always on their male students. Counselors encourage rural females to pursue accepted female professions like teaching and secretarial work or, more recently, military service where valuable skills may be learned. Since rural educational services are limited and delivery costs prohibitive, the military service may ameliorate for the lost opportunities in rural schools.

Peers also exert tremendous influence over the role expectations of rural females. This is particularly true within the Chicano culture. Chicanas are expected to assume the traditional role and to expect little or no identity of their own. They are defined via a male, such as, wife, sister, or girl friend of some man (Mirande & Enriquez, 1979). Chicanas who deviate from the traditional role threaten both men and women. They are seen as unattractive and unfeminine and are ostracized by their peers.

In a study conducted by Thomas & Stewart (1971) rural counselors in community service agencies rated clients with non-traditional career goals as having made a less appropriate choice than clients with traditional goals. The counselors also rated non-traditional young women significantly more in need of psychotherapy than more traditional young women. Limited expectations, then, for rural females are to be found within the entire spectrum of the rural environment.

What can be done to overcome these barriers to educational and occupational opportunities for rural females? Clarenbach (1977) suggests that rural women want to speak for themselves and have their voices listened to; they want to have the opportunity to become independent persons and to control their own lives. Since, as Rich (1979) points out, rural females' occupational aspirations and choice are determined by knowledge of (familiarity with) those occupations, and since rural occupations are limited in scope, it would seem appropriate for counselors to provide information on a greater variety of occupations than those found in the rural setting. The use of television and media to provide sources of information about occupations would also be highly productive.

Bringing in resource persons from other areas to inform students of job availabilities and qualifications could be utilized through a sharing of resources among communities. Helping to educate parents and teachers about non-traditional careers for females would seem to be of highest priority for counselors in their pursuit of better counseling procedures. Counselors, according to Edington (1978) are ranked third by rural youth for helpfulness in career guidance. Certainly this cannot be the ranking that they would hope to occupy in the future.

But most importantly, beyond making counselors, parents, and teachers aware of the opportunities available for rural females, there must be a concerted effort by them all to recognize the positive elements of rural life and not attempt to impose urban lifestyles on rural women and girls (Clarenbach, 1977). The rural to urban migration has begun to reverse and with the growth in rural populations there is a need for pride and confidence in the lifestyles available in rural communities.

Assumptions have been made that women benefit equally from efforts to improve the quality of rural life and that women benefit equally from recent national concern with women's status. These assumptions are unfounded. Rural women's needs as expressed by them (Clarenbach, 1977) are for counselors, employers, and Job Service and other personnel workers to recognize the skills that rural girls and women have acquired in the course of various unpaid activities, to analyze employment opportunities by the tasks needed to do the job, and to develop new positions that recognize and utilize the skills already identified. These needs have not and are

not being met in most of rural America. If we are to remedy years of neglect and lack of concern for our rural females, now is the time to start and they, themselves, have told us where to begin. Since teachers (Edington, 1978) are considered to be the most helpful in assisting rural youth with career decisions and traditionally education is held to be the key to progress, rural teachers may well be the implementers and facilitators of equal educational and occupational opportunities for rural females.

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EDUCATIONAL AND CAREER GOALS OF RURAL WOMEN

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Rural women in America represent all ethnic and socio-economic classifications. In spite of their diversity, these women share some common values and face common problems characteristic of all rural settings. Of particular significance are 1) a conservative orientation toward sex roles and appropriate lifestyles and 2) a conflict between the traditional demands of rural culture and contemporary pressure to enter the labor force.

Typically, rural women conform to the norm of woman as homemaker, mother and supporter of her husband's endeavors. They tend to marry earlier and have more children sooner than metropolitan women and are more likely to stay at home during their child-rearing years. They are also usually very active in the community institutions that serve to preserve and transmit rural culture such as the church, PTA, Four-H Club, and other community organizations.

In recent years, pressures to enter the labor force have increased and have created growing conflict with traditional rural values as more and more rural women are working. As of 1978, 48% of rural women had been or were looking for outside employment, 24% of rural women aged 25-35 were employed and 33% of farm wives were employed (Far West Laboratory, 1980). Pressures pushing rural women into the labor force include 1) the adoption, by some individuals, of the concepts of the women's movement that stress personal fulfillment outside the home and financial independence for women; 2) inflation which is forcing many metropolitan as well as rural families to supplement a single income; 3) family instability which leaves many women as heads of households; and 4) a desire for a higher standard of living.

Although the proportion of rural women who are employed is growing, they are employed in low skill, low pay, low status jobs. Their median earnings are 50% below that of rural men and appreciably less than that of metropolitan women in comparable jobs. Rural women are prevented from competing for any

jobs other than those at the low end of the pay and status continuum because they lack training and possess few marketable skills. Inadequate schooling is a contributing factor to both the lack of skill and the lack of confidence characteristic of rural women entering the job market.

According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1976), rural and metropolitan white women and rural white men all had about 12 years of schooling. However, data concerning minority women shows a very different picture. Rural Black women had, on the average, a ninth- or tenth-grade education; those living on farms had only an eighth-grade education. Rural Hispanic women averaged less than eight years of schooling. There was no census information concerning the educational levels of Native Americans or Native Alaskans.

Of the 17,000 school districts in the U.S., 12,000 are rural. One-third of the total school enrollment in this country is made up of rural children and youths. Yet, our rural schools are not meeting the needs of these youngsters. The educational programs and counseling services necessary to prepare rural youths to pursue higher level educational and occupational opportunities are inadequate or unavailable in geographically isolated, rural school districts. The specific and special needs of rural youngsters are often ignored in curricula designed for urban and suburban students. Teachers are not adequately trained to focus on the needs of rural students. Sex role stereotyping is common in curriculum materials, in learning materials, and in the attitudes of school personnel.

Although increasing numbers of rural women are entering the labor market after high school, they do not have the necessary skills to qualify for better jobs. Most of the already limited high school vocational courses are considered inappropriate for women. Furthermore, many of these young women are not realistic about the problems involved in combining work and marriage. They are

simply not prepared to deal with the problems that face them when they leave high school, enter the labor market, and take on the responsibilities of homemaking.

Older rural women face similar problems. They do not know how to assess the skills they have acquired at home and in their community activities. The social isolation of rural life further contributes to the lack of self confidence and diminished sense of personal options felt by rural women. Another problem facing older women entering the job market is the lack of adequate support services such as job training, counseling, child care facilities, and public transportation.

The rural woman is caught in a culture conflict between traditional, conservative rural attitudes and a desire to change her lifestyle. This conflict is itself a barrier to attaining equity in educational and employment opportunities for rural women. It is important to keep in mind, as stated by Chu (1980), that the "sex stereotypic attitudes and restrictive educational and occupational expectations of rural women are as characteristic of rural women as they are of rural men and are inherent in the social structure" (p.14). Although, according to Edington (1978), many rural women express greater educational aspirations than rural men, most plan to marry early and do not expect to continue their educations. Rural youth in general have lower educational and occupational aspirations than metropolitan youth. Fewer rural youngsters aspire to or actually do attend academic post-secondary programs.

The goals and expectations of rural women are often narrow and restricted to traditionally accepted female pursuits. Lack of adequate and appropriate educational programs and counseling services contribute, not only to minimal skills, but also to the low aspirations and expectations of rural women. The rural social structure and environment are additional factors serving to limit

the aspirations of rural women. Clarenbach (1977) perceives that, "Rural areas suffer a dearth of role models and field observation experiences which can broaden the realization of young girls that the world offers other career choices than motherhood and secretarial work" (p.29).

The National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs conducted a series of consultations with rural women in the South, Appalachia, the Mid-west and the Southwest (Clarenbach, 1977). The needs relevant to educational and career aspirations perceived and expressed by rural women in these sessions included the following.

1. Provide rural women with realistic information about a wide range of educational and occupational possibilities and provide them with the encouragement and support necessary to pursue their goals.

2. Help rural women improve their self confidence and self esteem through assertiveness training programs, seminars on personal growth, courses in women's studies, and courses focusing on women's roles and their rural heritage.

3. Provide programs to help identify leadership abilities and help rural women translate the leadership experience and skills developed in the community sphere into public policy and political leadership roles.

4. Enforce non-discrimination laws governing employment, education, housing and credit in rural areas where they are not being enforced.

5. Provide education on issues of property rights, inheritance, taxation, social security and other legal matters that affect rural women.

6. Provide bilingual and multilingual information appropriate to the needs of each community.

7. Subsidize child care and provide bilingual, cross-cultural, non-sexist day care centers.

8. Facilitate access to health services and particularly to services for the physically and mentally handicapped.

It is evident that many unmet needs exist in rural America. One of these needs is to provide encouragement for rural women to raise their expectations, to obtain the education and skills that will enable them to participate more equally in the social and economic life of our country. However, as Chu (1980)

cautions, "rural educators and policy makers must address the issue of potential cultural conflict thoughtfully in order to create positive changes without destroying the essence of the rural ways of life" (p.12).

Attempts to implement change through educational programs, if they are to be effective, must be accompanied by social policy changes. Government commitment to assist rural women is essential. Research and data gathering focusing on rural women are necessary. Manpower policies must be implemented to deal specifically with the employment problems of rural women. Delivery systems for educational and other services must be devised to reach even the most isolated communities. Educational television and telephone networks have already been used effectively by extension delivery systems in Wisconsin and Appalachia. Regional dissemination centers are essential.

Both educational and counseling services, in and out of the school, must recognize the positive elements of rural life. Rural America is not a cultural vacuum. The contributions of rural women and their cultural values must be respected. Encouraging changes in the attitudes and aspirations of rural women does not imply imposing urban lifestyles on rural populations. However, in order to attain work/income equity, and an expanded concept of personal options for rural women, counseling programs must focus on non-traditional career options.

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A TEACHING STYLE PROFILE OF WOMEN IN RURAL SCHOOLS OF NEW MEXICO

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Virtually every teacher exerts influence to varying degrees upon the students with whom she comes in contact. In a rural school, because of the typically smaller enrollment, and where the teachers may be expected to "wear many hats" both in and out of the classroom, it might be anticipated that this teacher is a significant influence on the rural child. Indeed, Edington's comments seem to support this thesis when he reports that rural students perceived the classroom teachers as more helpful than counselors in terms of forming job aspirations (Edington, 1978). One might ask, then, who are these teachers and what characteristics best describe them? In particular, what are the characteristics of the rural female teacher?

There is a paucity of information concerning rural females. The lack of data in regard to rural minority females is acute. Parks (1980) points to the need for specific and detailed knowledge in order to commence meeting the needs of the rural minority groups. Research in the area of rural education including concerns, problems, and needs is in the developing stages. Edington (1979) cites the need for relevant research in almost all areas of the rural educational domain. Very little research data is available concerning the rural teacher. There appears to be a dearth of any research pertaining to the rural female teacher.

The rural female teacher copes with the usual problems of most teachers, with the instructional problems unique to the rural community, and additionally with many of the same problems of the rural female. Vast cultural and socioeconomic differences are reflected in rural America. Typified by a conservative orientation, social and geographic isolation, today's rural areas present a fertile ground of conflicting needs for the female who is immersed in the rural locale. The rural culture imposes traditional demands; the contemporary world exerts pressures. Awareness of the needs and concerns of the rural female is only now surfacing (Dunne, 1979).

It would appear that the female teacher could be a significant factor not only to the youth of the community, but to the women as well. What is

her orientation and outlook? How is this reflected in the classroom? This information presently is not available.

Muse and Stonehocher (1979) described the perceptions of teachers and administrators in 32 small western rural high schools. They found that the teachers tended to have rural background, taught six to ten years, and were basically content in the situation. They reported that the rural teachers were perceived to have better discipline, gave more individual attention to students, and had closer teacher-student relationships than their urban counterparts. The rural school curriculum was perceived to be weaker than that of the city school. Teachers and administrators agreed on the lack of parental support, educational goals and motivation on the part of their students. They were also in agreement that preservice educational experiences need to give greater emphasis to the rural situation, and that inservice education was inadequate.

Stern (1979), in reporting problems different from the urban setting faced by rural elementary principals, found that instructional concerns were ranked highest. Problems cited were fewer supportive services, conservative school boards, resistance by community patrons to curriculum innovations and new teaching techniques, and resistance to allowing academic freedom to teachers.

In an effort to ascertain information concerning the rural female teacher in New Mexico, a pilot study out of New Mexico State University was initiated in the winter of 1980-81. Because of the lack of any available data regarding these women, and because of the researchers' interest in learning styles and teaching styles, it was proposed that initial efforts should focus on an attempt to describe the teaching style of the participants.

Papalia's definition of teaching style was used, " habitual, consistent patterns of preferred strategies used by teachers in promoting learning." (Papalia, 1978) This broad definition appears to be congruent with that of Dunn and Dunn (1977), who subdivide a person's teaching style into nine elements which lend themselves to potential areas of growth and long-range motivators. The nine areas include: 1) instructional

planning, 2) teaching methods, 3) student groupings, 4) room design, 5) teaching environment, 6) evaluation techniques, 7) educational philosophy, 8) teaching characteristics, and 9) student type.

A person's teaching style profile can be ascertained by utilizing the Dunn and Dunn Teaching Style Inventory. Based upon 67 descriptive variables (which are weighted as to importance) within the the nine categories, total scores are developed to provide a profile which seems to indicate how a teacher actually functions. One may thus determine whether the teacher is utilizing traditional, transitional, or individualized procedures. Implications are then derived, and appropriate stimulation and encouragement can be used to raise the level of awareness on the part of the teacher.

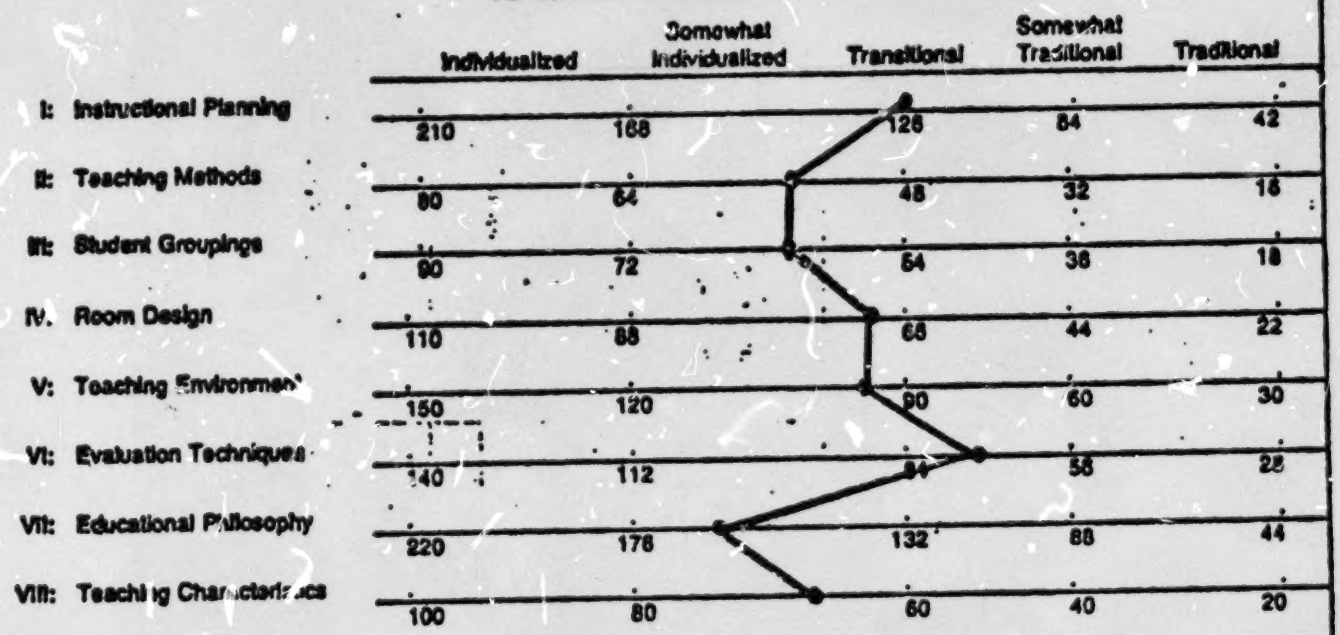
In this initial pilot study 50 rural female teachers were asked to respond to the Teaching Style Inventory instrument. Approximately one half of the participants were elementary teachers, the other half were secondary teachers. The teachers contacted were employed in six rural areas in New Mexico. These included Hatch, Ruidoso, Tularosa, Animas, Gadsden and Garfield school districts. Responses have been received from teachers in Hatch, Ruidoso, and Gadsden. To date, seventeen instruments have been received, for a 34 per cent return. More are expected. Although the N is small, an attempt has been made to derive projections based upon the data. Included in this report is a profile developed from the average weighted scores of the seventeen rural female teachers (see Figure 1, p. 4).

The average weighted scores for each of the eight categories were: Instructional Planning, 126.7; Teaching Methods, 55.2; Student Groupings, 62.5; Room Design, 69.1; Teaching Environment, 95.9; Evaluation Techniques, 76.6; Educational Philosophy, 162.6; and Teaching Characteristics, 67.4. In interpreting the total profile, it would appear that many of these rural female teachers are utilizing transitional procedures. In educational philosophy they tend toward being somewhat individualized. Evaluation techniques appear to be the category in which they are most likely to use somewhat traditional procedures.

The ninth category, which is not included on the Teaching Style Profile form, concerns Student Type. A resume of a teacher's response

Place the "Total Score" that you obtained for each of the previous categories on the line pertaining to that item by making a dot on the line closest to the appropriate numeral.

TEACHING STYLE PROFILE



After you have placed a dot on each line indicating the total score you obtained for each category, link each dot in succession. This chart should provide you with a graphic representation, or profile, of your present teaching style.

to the descriptive categories which include: learning rate, motivation scale, emotional stability, learning potential, verbal communication ability, and independence level, will indicate the type of student who might perform well and develop in a positive manner under this teacher's direction. Although the N is small at this writing, a brief description of the type of student with whom the teacher is almost always successful is provided. Approximately 60 per cent of the teachers felt they were always successful with the following type of student: quickly achieving, motivated, conforming, responsible, emotionally stable, gifted, creative, far above-average IQ, average IQ, articulate, average verbal ability, adult-oriented, and independent.

The type of student with whom at least 70 per cent of the teachers believed themselves to be only occasionally, rarely, or almost never successful included non-achieving, apathetic, unmotivated, not responsible, emotionally troubled, learning impaired, and Non-English speaking.

It appears that the rural female teachers in southern New Mexico perceive themselves to be successful with the bright, motivated student. They perceive themselves to be unsuccessful with the generally non-achieving, unmotivated pupils. Emotionally troubled, learning impaired, or non-English speaking students constitute potential failures for these teachers.

Because these teachers seem to be using transitional procedures, and indicate a trend toward an educational philosophy supportive of a somewhat individualized procedure, it might be anticipated that they would be amenable and open to programs, provided through various delivery systems, which would help them to become more successful with the very children with whom they presently feel least successful. Needs assessments could be carried out in terms of identifying and providing individual teachers with appropriate strategies, techniques, and materials in order to meet their unique situation.

It would appear that these rural female teachers would be supportive of inservice programs and teacher centers which should meet not only the

needs of the individual teacher, but encourage collaboration between teachers. Although faced with inherent limitations in regard to professional development, particularly in the more isolated areas, these women have the potential of reaching beyond these limitations. If services can be provided, they will be able to increase their capabilities in meeting the needs of their students.

Careful to capitalize on the rich cultural values of rural America, they can also be a guiding force in adjustment to the pressures of today's society. They can serve this role both with the students under their care, and with the other adult females who are immersed in their local rural setting. They can help raise the level of awareness of the role of today's modern woman, potential career aspirations, and career capabilities. They can do this not only in their own modeling, but through the use of specific classroom strategies, curriculum materials, and appropriate textbooks. Questions abound in relation to these topics. Much more research is needed to provide information relevant to all areas of the role of the rural female teacher.

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PICTORIALS IN SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTBOOKS: PERPETUATING SEXISM AND RACISM

BY

ANITA B. WALLACE

Schools are a social experience and a vehicle for transmitting social values and attitudes. Textbooks are one of the transmitting agents, and, as curricula material, are an important source of transferring messages of socialization to children. An awareness of how materials used by current school programs is a step toward developing an education best suited for a democratic nation. Do social values depicted in textbooks provide a realistic representation of society or only a representation of those groups which exercise authority? Although there is an increased awareness, many books still perpetuate prejudices, particularly those of sexism and racism.

The Problem

The role of textbook pictorial illustrations in presenting race and sex stereotypes has not received the attention it deserves. As far as the writer can ascertain, no research studies exist which analyze the pictorial content of bilingual/bicultural program textbooks for both sexist and racist attitudes. Indeed, few research studies have used pictorial analysis although the issues of sexism and racism have become major concerns in recent years.

Educators in multicultural areas, such as southern New Mexico and West Texas, must consider social factors when developing and implementing

a bilingual/bicultural curriculum. Value systems as social systems are continually changing. This study is an attempt to measure whether or not increasing social attention to racial and sexual biases contained in textbooks has influenced the content of text and books used in bilingual/bicultural programs. By replicating previous studies and incorporating an ethnic variable, this study is a unique reference. It is also unique in that it focuses on pictorials in bilingual/bicultural programs.

Procedure

Social studies textbooks were solicited from four school districts with Spanish/English bilingual programs: El Paso Independent School District, El Paso, Texas; Gadsden Independent School District, Anthony, New Mexico; Las Cruces Public Schools, Las Cruces, New Mexico; and Ysleta Independent School District, El Paso, Texas. The majority of texts available were those typically used in monolingual, as well as in bilingual/bicultural, programs. The only bilingual materials in use were those developed by teachers for their own classes.

Textbooks and supplemental materials were evaluated on the basis of containing at least 50 pictorial illustrations in each textbook and of including more than one racial group in each textbook. The selected textbooks were divided into two groups by publication date: the earlier group (E) including 32 books published before 1975; and the later group (L) including 38 books published since 1975. A sample of eight books from each category was selected using a table of random numbers. These are referred to as E-1 through E-8 and L-1 through L-8, respectively.

All 1,406 pictorial illustrations in the 16 books were included in the study. The researcher recorded the included pictorials by page numbers; multiple illustrations were treated as single samples when located on the same or facing pages.

After a preliminary test using methods described by Graebner (1972) in content analysis of sex-role stereotyping, the same procedure was adopted to analyze possible racist stereotyping. All pictorials in the 16 randomly selected textbooks were evaluated by a female Mexican-American and a male Anglo-American judge, who counted the male, female, Anglo, and ethnic figures. Data were collected and recorded for both sex and ethnicity differences. Evaluation consisted of frequency distributions for each pictorial in the selected textbooks by male, female, Anglo, and other categories. All illustrations were rated on an activity scale based on two previous studies (Graebner, 1972; Marten & Matlin, 1976). Each sample pictorial was rated on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 the most passive and 5 the most active.

Six hypotheses were formulated on the basis of frequency and activity levels of male and female figures and Anglo and ethnic figures according to publication periods. The collected data for frequency of male versus female characters and frequency of Anglo versus other ethnic characters were tested by chi-square analysis, by time groups. Cochran's test was used to test homogeneity of variance; a two-way analysis of variance was used to test two hypotheses; and a Newman-Keuls test was performed to compare the males of male and female activity-level representation in the earlier and later groups.

Findings

Sex differences. The number of males and females depicted in the textbooks was determined for each of the 16 books analyzed. The total numbers of males and females in the two publication periods are presented in Table 1. Chi-square analysis suggested that male figures were shown more often than female figures in both periods.

Analysis of variance based on activity levels of males and females in both time groups showed a significant difference in the activity levels. These activity levels changed from the earlier publication time period to the later publication time period ($p < .05$). As shown in Figure 1, the decline of activity from the earler to the later groups appeared to be greater for males than for females. The interaction of male and female activity ratings and time was statistically significant ($p < .05$) (see Table 3). Males had a higher rating in the activity level than the females. The activity level for males was higher in the early time period than in the later period. The Newman-Keuls test revealed that the activity rating for females in the early time group did not differ significantly from that in the late time group. However, male ratings in the later group were significantly less than in the early time group (Table 4).

Ethnicity differences. The number of Anglo and ethnic figures in the textbook illustrations was also determined. Chi-square analysis suggested that Anglo figures were depicted more often than ethnic figures in both time periods (Table 2). (Cochran's test showed assumption of homoscedasticity and was accepted.) Analysis of variance showed a significant

difference in the activity levels of Anglos and ethnics in both time groups. Their activity levels changed significantly ($p < .05$) from the earlier to the later publication period (Table 5). As shown in Figure 2, the decline of activity from earlier to later publication groups appeared to be the same for Anglos and ethnics. However, there was no statistically significant interaction of Anglo and ethnic activity ratings and time. Anglos had a higher rating in the activity level depicted in the illustrations than did the ethnics. The activity level for Anglo and ethnic figures in the earlier publication period was rated higher than the activity level in the later publication time period.

Discussion

Results of the analyses of variance indicated that none of the original six hypotheses was rejected. A Newman-Keuls comparison test was computed to gain further insight into differences among group means for the data concerning sex differences.

Sex differences. The results of chi-square analysis for frequency of male and female figures in the illustrations indicated more males than females were portrayed in the early publications. There was a significant change in the relation of male to female frequency counts from the earlier to the later time period; however, there remained significantly more males than females in the later group of textbooks. It is clear that publishers of the later group attempted to represent males and females more proportionately than did the publishers of the earlier group of books.

The activity level of males changed significantly from the earlier to the later time group, but the female activity level did not change significantly. Time and sex factor indicated that the activity levels of males and females had changed significantly over the time periods studied. Figures in pictorials were less active in later publications than in earlier ones.

Ethnicity differences. Anglo figures continued to be represented more often in social studies textbooks than ethnic figures. However, there was a significant improvement in the frequency of representation of Anglos as related to ethnics even though Anglos were presented in greater numbers overall than ethnics.

The activity levels for Anglos and ethnics changed significantly from the earlier to the later publication time groups. Activity levels in the later group for both Anglos and ethnics decreased when compared to the activity levels in the earlier group of books.

Conclusions. The results of the study indicated that the human figures in the textbooks analyzed represented a male-oriented, Anglo-dominated population. There has been an increasing tendency in textbooks to give a more realistic representation of females and ethnics; however, even the later group of books contained pictorial illustrations that perpetuated sexual and racial biases.

On the basis of these conclusions, various implications for multicultural educators are clear. Varying ethnic as well as sex differences exist within a given classroom and should be considered in the selection of curricula materials, including textbooks.

Definite sex and ethnic differences must be accepted and dealt with in teacher training and in-service training programs. College and university training-counselors and teachers who will be working with students from multicultural backgrounds need to expand their curricula to incorporate textbook selection, development of materials, and courses in methodology which convey a positive awareness of sex and ethnic differences.

Awareness workshops focusing on sex stereotyping should be a part of the social science curriculum. Ways of focusing on sex stereotypes should become an important consideration in curricula development in public schools at all levels.

Guidelines for detection of sex and ethnic stereotyping in curricula materials should be established by educators of multicultural school districts.

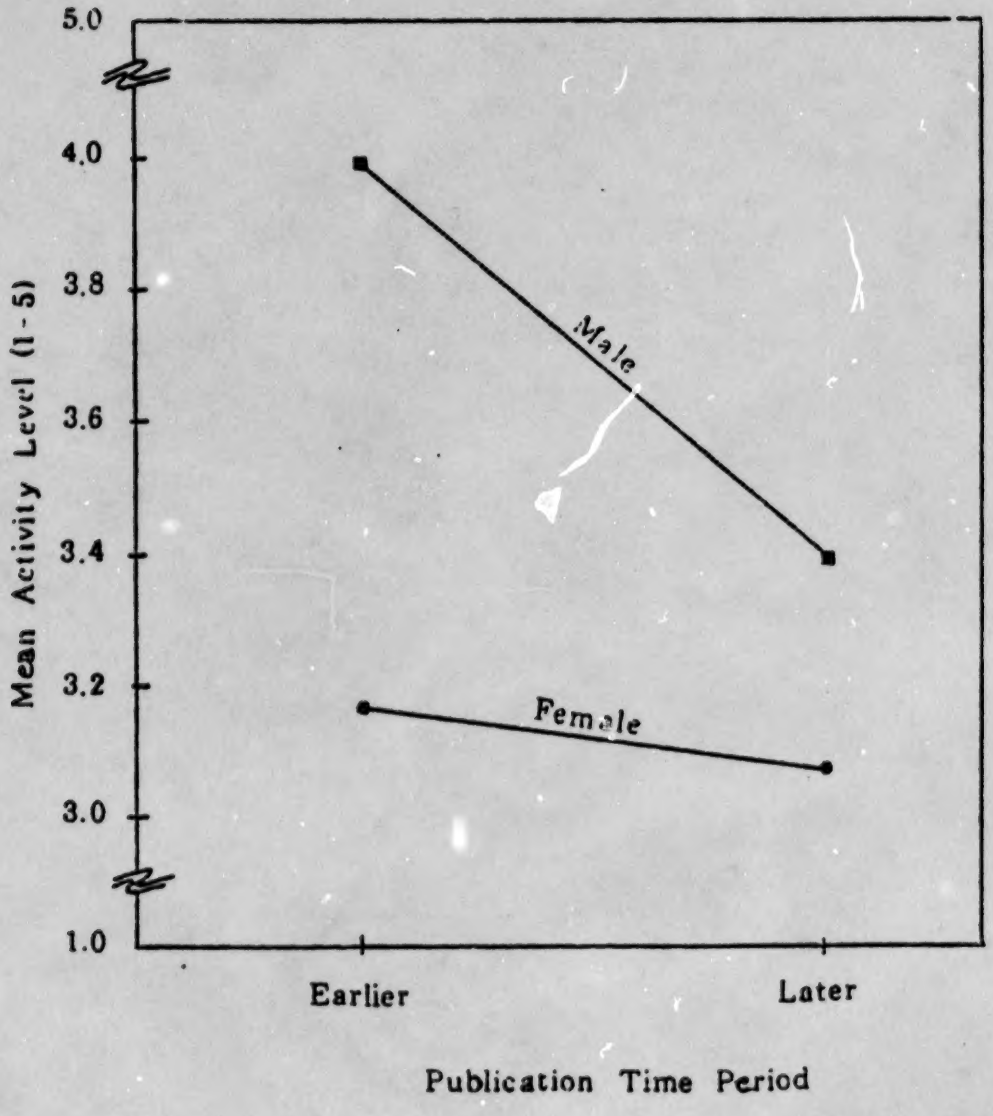

Figure 1. Mean activity level over time: Sex.

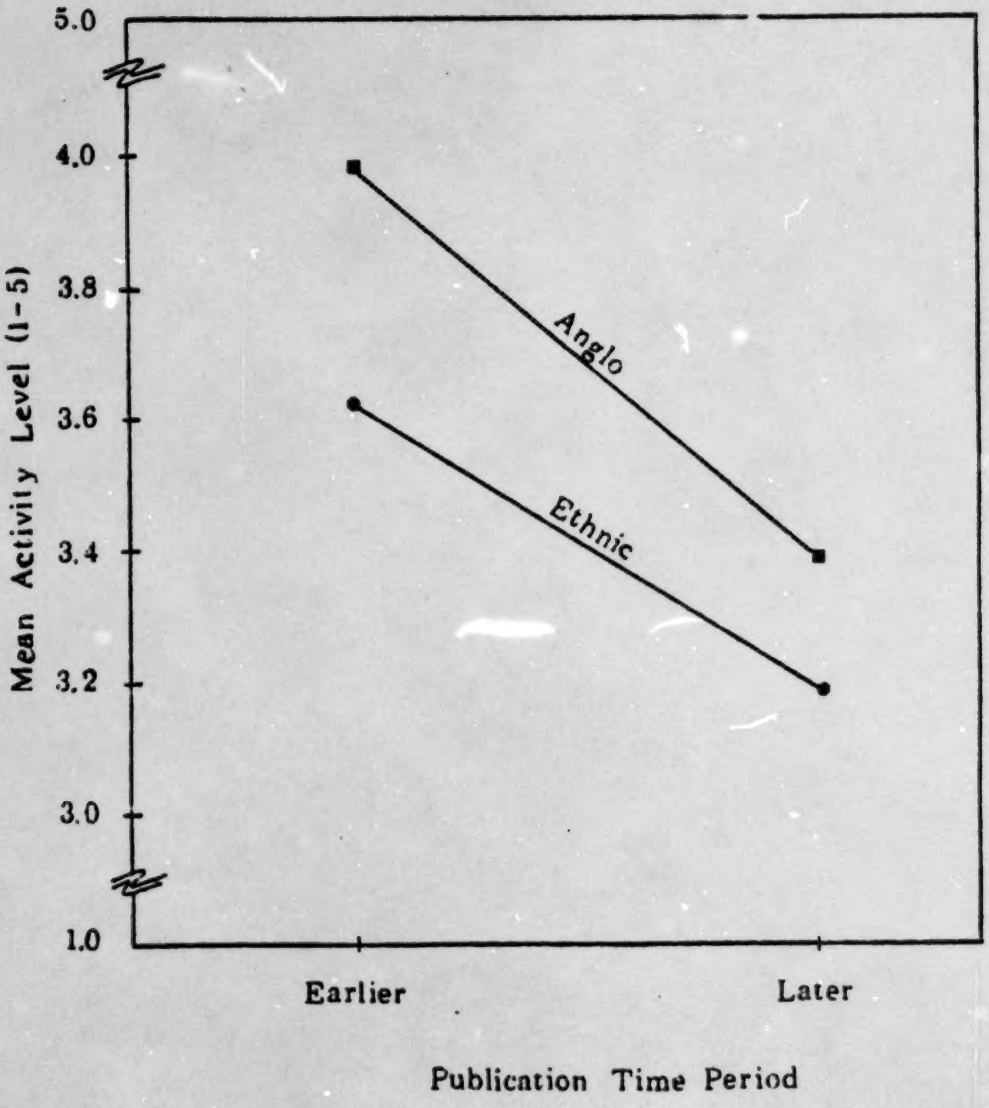

Figure 2. Mean actiyity level over time: Ethnicity.

Table 1

Chi-Square Analysis for Sex Frequencies

Publication Period	Male	Female
Early	657	341
Late	586	483

df = 2.

Calculated χ^2 = 26.11840*.

*p < .05.

Table 2

Chi-Square Analysis for Ethnicity Frequencies

Publication Period	Anglo	Ethnic
Early	599	220
Late	533	370

df = 2.

Calculated χ^2 = 37.99646*.

*p < .05.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance: Sex

Source	df	MS	F
Time (T)	1	66.84356	37.08932*
Sex (S)	1	182.32954	101.16875*
T x S	1	34.43089	19.10458*
Error	2063	1.80223	

*$p < .05$.

Table 4

Newman-Keuls Test of Mean Differences

Group	EF 3.06832	LF 3.17302	EM 3.41468	LM 4.05175
EF	-	0.10470	0.34636*	0.98343*
LF	-	-	0.24166*	0.87833*
EM	-	-	-	0.63707*
LM	-	-	-	-

EF = Earlier Females; LF = Later Females; EM = Earlier Males; LF = Later Males.

*$p < .05$.

Table 5

Analysis of Variance: Ethnicity

Source	df	MS	F
Time (T)	1	93.39977	74.77508*
Ethnicity (E)	1	30.23601	24.20670*
T x E	1	1.92431	1.54059
Error	1718	1.24908	

*$p < .05$.

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